



Synthetic Weather Diaries: Concept and Application to Swiss Weather in 1816

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Abstract. Climate science is about to produce numerical daily weather reconstructions based on meteorological measurements for Central Europe 250 years back. Using a pilot reconstruction covering Switzerland at 2x2 km² resolution for 1816, this paper presents methods to translate numerical reconstructions and derived indices into text describing daily weather and the state of vegetation. This facilitates comparison with historical sources and analyses of effects of weather on different aspects of life. The translation, termed “synthetic weather diary” could possibly be used to train machine learning approaches to do the reverse: reconstruct past weather from categorized text entries in diaries.

1 Introduction

The past decade has seen tremendous advances in numerical weather reconstructions. They were enabled by new numerical techniques such as data assimilation (Compo et al. 2011), combined with a new demand arising from new scientific questions (better understanding variability), new societal needs (prepare for extreme weather events in the future), and the more widespread use of numerical modelling in climate impact research. In this situation, historical instrumental data – but also documentary weather data – become once again valuable for science (Allan et al., 2011). Based on digitised historical instrumental data, model chains can be built (e.g., numerically simulating the damage of past storm or flood events, see Stucki et al., 2015, 2018) and analysed together with historical sources (e.g., Allan et al., 2016; Veale et al., 2017).

In addition to data assimilation, providing global weather data at coarse resolution back to the early 19th century (Slivinski et al. 2019), also other techniques such as analog resampling of regional weather fields (Caillouet et al., 2019; Devers et al., 2020; Pfister et al., 2020) have been used to reconstruct local daily weather 150–200 years back in time, with the potential to go even further back. These reconstructions provide a resource not just for climate science, but also for historians. Depending on the application, a translation between numerical weather data and the descriptive text format in which historical observations and weather diaries are typically written would be beneficial. In this paper I present a first step in this direction, termed “synthetic weather diary”.

Turned into categorized text, numerical weather reconstructions could supplement historical sources with weather descriptions, much like weather reports today. They could provide, for instance, information on the day-to-day weather for a specific journey or during a military operation. In addition to the individual measurements, useful information for historians could be gained from specific indices based on these daily data. Such indices could provide information on the freezing of water bodies, the state of vegetation, or drought conditions.

The translation makes numerical reconstructions and observations directly comparable, which is not only useful for historians, but also for climate sciences. For instance, generating synthetic weather diaries from numerical data



in recent decades could be used to train machine learning algorithms to provide the weather pattern (e.g., the weather type or even a full spatial field). A trained algorithm could then be used to classify daily weather in the past based on categorized information from historical weather diaries.

Codification of descriptive weather information is a core work of historians of climate (Riemann et al., 2015). A next step then is to establish an ordinal scale, which has been attempted mostly at the monthly or seasonal scale. So-called “Pfister indices” (Pfister et al., 2018) are often used and categorize weather in three-point (-1, 0, 1) or seven-point (-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3) indices, with corresponding designations such as “extremely cold”, “cold”, etc. (Pfister, 1999). Calibrating such indices with measurement-based time series in order to calibrate climate reconstructions implies a similar translation from numerical data to text, though on the monthly or seasonal scale. In this paper I describe a pilot study to generate synthetic weather diaries based on daily weather reconstructions for Switzerland for the year 1816, known as a „Year Without a Summer“. Weather and climate during this year were affected by the eruption of Tambora in Indonesia in 1815 (Raible et al., 2016; Brönnimann and Krämer, 2016). The summer was very cold and rainy, particularly in Central Europe (Auchmann et al., 2012; Luterbacher and Pfister, 2015; Veale and Endfield, 2016), although the adverse weather conditions were only partly due to direct effects of the eruption. The “Year Without a Summer” of 1816 is arguably among the most prominent climate events of the past 350 years. Concurring with increased vulnerability after the Napoleonic wars (due to political instability, economic shifts after the end of the continental system, high unemployment rates, and inadequate governance), the societal consequences of this weather event were severe, particularly in Switzerland (Krämer, 2015; Behringer, 2016). Further weather-related effects were related to snow accumulation, such as avalanches in the following winter (Rohr, 2015) and a flood event in early summer 1817, although the snowmelt contribution was large only close to the Alps (Rössler and Brönnimann, 2018). The Tambora eruption was one of at least five large eruptions within a relatively short period, which together had profound effects on the global climate system, including monsoons, and on Alpine glaciers (Brönnimann et al., 2019).

In the following I describe the weather reconstruction, the translation into text as well as the generation of impact-related indices. Then I evaluate the synthetic diaries by comparison with daily observations (which are already in categorized form) and monthly weather summaries as well as brief daily weather notes written down on Lord Byron’s famous journey through Switzerland (Byron, 1839) in September 1816. A discussion then follows on the use of “synthetic weather diaries” in history and science. The paper ends with brief conclusions.

2 Data

2.1 Numerical reconstructions

The daily weather reconstructions for 1816 used in this paper are taken from Flückiger et al. (2017) and cover Switzerland. They were produced with the specific aim of numerically modelling potential harvest yields during the “Year Without a Summer” of 1816 in Switzerland. Furthermore, they were subsequently used to numerically model the flood events of 1817 (Rössler and Brönnimann, 2018). In the following, I give a brief summary of the reconstruction technique. Note that the reconstruction was not designed for day-to-day accuracy. Nevertheless, it best serves the purpose of presenting the concept of synthetic weather diaries as it is the earliest, high-resolution spatial weather reconstruction available at the moment of writing and also because the “Year Without a Summer” of 1816 is well documented and of particular interest.



76 The reconstruction is based on an analog resampling. The analog pool consists of 59 years of daily $2 \times 2 \text{ km}^2$
 77 resolved fields of minimum and maximum temperature (T_{\min} and T_{\max} , which we averaged to daily mean
 78 temperature, T_{mean} , for this study) and precipitation from the data sets TminD, TmaxD, and RhiresD (Frei, 2014),
 79 reaching back to 1961. Solar irradiance fields were produced using a k-nearest neighbour interpolation. From this
 80 pool, the day that is closest to a historical target day, according to all measurements available at that historical day,
 81 was chosen, as is detailed in the following. The process was repeated for each day, and the sequence of closest
 82 analogs constitutes the reconstruction.

83 Three stations were used to define a measure of distance between analog pool and historical target day: Geneva,
 84 Delémont (both in Switzerland), and Hohenpeissenberg (Bavaria). These were the only three stations within or in
 85 the vicinity of Switzerland with daily or subdaily data at the time the reconstruction was produced. We used T_{\min}
 86 and T_{\max} for Geneva and Hohenpeissenberg, T_{mean} for Delémont and precipitation for Geneva. The Euclidian
 87 distance was chosen as the distance measure. We accounted for a change in temperature between the historical
 88 period and the pool-of-analog period, as detailed in Flückiger et al. (2017).

89 The analog selection then proceeded in several steps: The chosen analog must be in the same season as the target
 90 day (calendar day ± 30 days) and must be of the same weather type (according to Auchmann et al., 2012). Then,
 91 the closest day in the analog pool according to Euclidian distance between the station measurements of the
 92 historical target day and every day in the pool of analogs was chosen. Finally, the temperature change was
 93 subtracted from the analog temperature to obtain the reconstruction for the past (precipitation and irradiance were
 94 not changed).

95 Note that a much improved reconstruction (relying on much more data and using a post-processing step that
 96 additionally corrects the best analog towards the observations) is available from 1864 onward (Pfister et al., 2020).
 97 It is used in this paper only briefly to assess the effect of the reconstruction quality on the agreement between the
 98 synthetic weather diary and independent weather notes.

99 In addition to the reconstructed fields, I also use Swiss weather types, which are available for every day back to
 100 1763 (Schwander et al. 2017). The data set provides for each day the most likely of seven weather types, along
 101 with its probability. Each weather type can be equated to a short meteorological description of the weather. The
 102 seven weather types (termed CAP7, where CAP stands for Cluster Analysis of Principal Components) are based
 103 on the so-called CAP9 weather types of MeteoSwiss (Weusthoff, 2011) which encompass nine types. The
 104 reduction to seven types (by combining existing types) was necessary as in the early decades, some types could
 105 not be well discriminated, Table 1 shows an overview.

106 2.2. Data for comparison: Non-instrumental observations

107 The gridded reconstruction is based only on instrumental measurements from three stations. In a recent project we
 108 have uncovered (Pfister et al., 2019) and digitized (Brugnara et al., 2020) many more instrumental series for
 109 Switzerland back to the early 18th century, such that we now have ten series for 1816. This effort was part of a
 110 global effort to uncover more historical instrumental data (Brönnimann et al., 2019b), a lot of which is currently
 111 being digitized. With these data, more accurate reconstructions will be produced in the future. The Swiss data
 112 could be used to independently evaluate the reconstruction used here, but I touch on this only briefly as it is not
 113 the goal of this paper. Rather, most of these additional series also have categorized daily weather observations,
 114 and some have descriptive monthly summaries. In this paper I focus on these entries for three series: Geneva,



115 Aarau, and St. Gall. These three series are described in the following; they can be downloaded from EURO-
 116 CLIMHIST (Pfister et al., 2017).
 117 The Aarau weather data, published in the journal *Archiv der Medizin Chirurgie und Pharmazie* (Zschokke, 1817)
 118 contain twice or three times daily instrumental (pressure, temperature) and non-instrumental (precipitation, sky
 119 cover) information (Faden et al., 2020). An example for September 1816, is given in Figure 1. The weather data
 120 were recorded by Heinrich Zschokke (1771-1848), a German-born teacher and politician. The record was
 121 continued by his son and overall covers almost 60 years.
 122 Likewise, the St. Gall record contains instrumental (temperature, pressure) and non-instrumental (precipitation,
 123 sky cover) information, recorded twice daily. The observations were made by pharmacist Daniel Meyer (1778-
 124 1864) from 1812 to 1832 and continued by other, unknown observers (Hürzeler et al., 2020). The data were
 125 published in the journal *Der Erzähler* (Meyer, 1816, 1817).
 126 The series from Geneva (Auchmann et al., 2012) was observed by Marc-Auguste Pictet (1752-1825), a scientist
 127 and publisher from Geneva. He was director of the Geneva Observatory; in fact, he may rightly be called a
 128 meteorologist. His observations, published monthly in the journal “Bibliothèque universelle” (Pictet, 1816), also
 129 include monthly summaries with notes on the state of vegetation. Note that the instrumental measurements from
 130 Geneva were used to produce the daily numerical reconstruction, so they are not independent. Therefore, I do not
 131 compare the daily entries here, but rather the monthly summaries.
 132 Finally, I also briefly use weather observations made by a person named Furrer in Winterthur from 1849-1867
 133 (Pfister et al., 2019). The data were taken from the Zurich State Archive (Furrer, n. y.). They are used to test my
 134 approach in a later period, when better reconstructions are available.

135 2.3 Data for comparison: Weather diary

136 Synthetic weather diaries can also be generated for journeys. To test this, I used the travel diary of Lord Byron
 137 during his famous voyage from Lake Geneva through the Bernese Oberland in September 1816. I extracted several
 138 weather related statements from his travel journal (Byron, 1839) and extracted the same information, in space and
 139 time, in the numerical reconstruction.

140 3 Method

141 3.1 General concept and reference period

142 In order to make the weather reconstructions as useful as possible to non-climatologists, while allowing to better
 143 compare them to weather observation notes, I structured the data in a similar way as found in many observation
 144 books. Daily values and descriptors are listed, and for each month a summary is given:

- 145 • For each day, the absolute number is given for T_{mean} and precipitation, accompanied by additional
 146 information (relating to a reference period, see below) and a set of descriptive qualifiers concerning each
 147 variable and the weather type.
- 148 • For each month, monthly statistics are given for T_{mean} and precipitation in numerical form. Additionally,
 149 monthly indices are calculated and given numerically. Again, this section is accompanied by descriptive
 150 qualifiers for both, the monthly weather and the indices.

151 Observers might sometimes report on temperature in an “absolute” manner (e.g., referring to freezing), but often
 152 also in a relative way (e.g., “very cold day”) based on their own experience and perhaps in some cases alluding to



societal memory. This requires information on the observers and observation context. For this study this implies putting absolute numbers in the context of a reference period. For consistency, I use the same reference period as in Flückiger et al. (2017): the period 1800-1820 without the volcanically perturbed years 1809-1911 and 1815-1817. Fields of reference period mean temperature for every calendar day are available from Flückiger et al. (2017), so results presented here can be compared with that study. However, obviously a historical observer would not have a memory of the future.

Note that Flückiger et al. (2017) did not reconstruct every day in the historical reference period. Rather, they defined a present-day reference period, 1982-2009, from which they subtracted the difference (in terms of a seasonal cycle) between the periods 1800-1820 and 1982-2009 based on instrumental observations from the three mentioned stations for the historical reference period. For precipitation and solar irradiance, no change was added and thus 1982-2009 is considered as a reference period for these two variables. In this paper, for consistency, I follow the same approach.

Historical observers, in their reporting, might account for the changing variability in the course of the seasons. For instance, variability is larger in winter than in summer. Temperature on a “cold” summer day might be less below average (in degrees Celsius) than on a “cold” winter day. I therefore standardized the anomalies, again using the 1982-2009 standard deviation (calculated for each calendar day and then smoothed by fitting the first two harmonics of the seasonal cycle). Likewise, monthly averages or monthly statistics were expressed as standardized anomalies by using the reference period annual cycle and standard deviations calculated per calendar month.

3.2 Obtaining daily weather descriptions

The first step to obtain daily weather descriptions is to establish a taxonomy that eventually allows a comparison between observations and numerical reconstructions. The target taxonomy must be reducible to the observed taxonomy, but ideally contains additional information. The observations by both Zschokke and Meyer were already extremely standardised. With respect to precipitation, the main categories are rain, snow, or an empty field (standing for dry). In the case of Zschokke, we also (rarely) find the terms “Schneeregen” (mix of snow and rain) and “Staubregen” (most likely: drizzle¹). In the case of Winterthur, which was used for testing the method in 1865, we also find “Nebelregen”, “Nebel” and “neblig” (fog rain, fog, foggy; for the comparison we assume that precipitation amounts are below the detection threshold chosen in the next Section.).

In short, Zschokke and Mayer both provide basically three categories (rain, snow, or dry), two or three times per day. The synthetic weather diary has only daily resolution (so the observations need to be aggregated for comparison), but information can be categorized into more classes which can then be aggregated. The definitions of the classes are indicated in Table 2 and described in more detail in the following.

For all standardized anomalies (daily or monthly) we use a seven-point scale defined in Table 3. Note that this scale deviates from similar seven-point scales as defined, e.g., by Pfister et al. (2018) which is also included in Table 3. This is because on the daily scale, a non-linear (in terms of the underlying variable; the scale is almost linear in terms of probabilities) categorization as implied by the “Pfister indices” seems hard to achieve; it would require detecting rather subtle changes close to the average. Therefore a linear scale is preferred. The basic categories $-x$ or x (e.g., “cold” or “warm”) are similar in the two classifications, with thresholds roughly near the

¹ „Staubregen“ is described as drizzle in many contemporary dictionaries (e.g., Adelung 1811). However, the term was also used for dust fall (e.g., Saharan dust events). For the comparison we assume that the amount in any case would be below the detection threshold that is later chosen.



quartiles, but there is a large discrepancy in the use of the term “extreme”. There is approximate agreement of my scale with the likelihood scale in the IPCC calibrated language (IPCC, 2013) where “likely” and “very likely” refer to 66% and 90% cumulative probability (in my scale “x” and “very x” refer to 69.1% and 93.3%, respectively). However, the scale can easily be adapted, and indeed should be adapted, for other applications.

For the daily values, the following information is given:

- For T_{mean} the synthetic weather diary contains the absolute values, the anomaly from a contemporary reference period, and the standardized anomaly. The taxonomy is based on the latter, using the seven-point scale (Table 3): values < -2.5 are termed “extremely cold”, -2.5 to -1.5 “very cold”, -1.5 to -0.5 “cold”, -0.5 to 0.5 “average”, 0.5 to 1.5 “warm”, 1.5 to 2.5 “very warm”, and > 2.5 “extremely warm”.
- For precipitation the synthetic diary gives the absolute value as well as the qualifier “dry” (< 1 mm), “slight rain” (1 to 5 mm), “rain” (5 to 15 mm) and “heavy rain” (> 15 mm). The thresholds are chosen arbitrarily. For the case of Geneva, 69% of the days in the reference period are “dry”. Of the remaining days, half have “slight rain”, 36% have “rain” and 14% “heavy rain”. The sensitivity to the choice of the thresholds is analysed later. If daily mean temperature was below 2°C (following Zubler et al., 2014) the qualifiers “slight snowfall”, “snowfall”, “heavy snowfall” are used instead.
- Sky conditions are given as text. For this, irradiance was first expressed as fraction of the maximum possible value for the corresponding calendar day. The latter was approximated here by the simple function $100 * (1.4 \text{ W/m}^2 - \cos(w))$, where w is the angle corresponding to the calendar day centred around the solstices. If the fraction is higher than 0.66 and no precipitation is reconstructed, the sky is described as “clear”; if it is below 0.66, or if there is precipitation, “partly cloudy”, if it is below 0.33, “cloudy”.
- Finally, I provide the most likely weather type for that day from the Swiss CAP7 weather statistics (Schwander et al., 2017), along with the probability of that weather type on that day and a text description of the type. Note that the weather type cannot directly be compared with the (often observed) wind direction unless the local situation is very well understood. However, for future applications, wind would be an important component of a synthetic weather diary.

Note that irradiance was calculated from an interpolation of few station data and should only be analysed closed to current weather stations, which is the case for the four extracted weather diaries. However, spatial field cannot be analysed, and I do not provide numerical values in the synthetic weather diaries.

3.3 Monthly weather summaries

For each month, the following information is given:

- Mean T_{mean} of the month, again along with the deviation from the reference and a qualifier (7-point scale, Table 3), number of freezing days ($T_{\text{mean}} < 0^\circ\text{C}$)
- Precipitation sum (also expressed as percentage of the reference for that calendar month) and number of rain or snow days,
- Monthly counts of the 7 weather types (also expressed as percentage of the corresponding relative frequency for that calendar month in the reference period), and
- Three derived indices described below: Growing Degree Days, maximum 10-day value of Freezing Degree Days, and water balance, each given as absolute value and qualifiers

This information can further be condensed, if necessary. The following monthly indices are used:



- 229 • Growing Degree Days (GDD): The cumulative sum of T_{mean} above 4 °C (starting on 1 January) is a
 230 measure for suitability for crop growth. Each month I give the value for that month (with reference) as
 231 well as the delay at the end of the month with respect to the median in the reference period, and a
 232 qualitative description (“extremely early” to “extremely late”, according to standardised anomalies using
 233 the 7-pt scale). While leaf unfolding or flowering quite generally depends on GDD, crop maturity (and
 234 thus harvest dates) or leaf colouring are more species dependent and depend on other factors. Therefore,
 235 GDD delays and qualifiers are only given for the months of March to July.
- 236 • Freezing Degree Days (FDD): The cumulative sum of T_{mean} below 0 °C (with a positive sign),
 237 accumulated over the 10 previous days. For the months January to April and October to December, the
 238 maximum of this 10-day index per month ($\max_{10}\text{FDD}$) is given. If maximum FDD exceeds 50 °C, then a
 239 note “small lakes frozen” is indicated, if it exceeds 90 °C, “large lakes frozen” is indicated. These
 240 thresholds are in approximate agreement with Franssen and Scherrer (2008), but, again, would have to be
 241 adapted for each application.
- 242 • A monthly index of the water balance (precipitation minus potential evapotranspiration, P-E) is calculated
 243 by making use of the precipitation amount and T_{mean} , from which potential evapotranspiration is
 244 calculated using the Thornthwaite (1948) formula. The monthly balance is standardized and then described
 245 in each month with the 7-pt scale (“extremely wet” to “extremely dry”).

246 4 Results

247 4.1 Non-instrumental observations for Aarau and St. Gall

248 The synthetic weather diaries for Aarau and St. Gall are given in the electronic supplement. Their performance in
 249 terms of temperature can be measured by comparing the numerical values with the instrumental temperature series
 250 from the two stations, which were not used in the reconstruction process and are thus independent. After
 251 subtracting the mean annual cycle in the reference period from both series (by fitting the first two harmonics of
 252 the seasonal cycle), I find a correlation of 0.81 and 0.72, respectively. Note that the measurements themselves
 253 have errors. In view of that, the correlations indicate that even though the reconstruction is only based on three
 254 stations, the temperature fields are quite reliable.

255 For rainfall and sky cover, I compare our synthetic diaries with the actual observations from the two stations. As
 256 an example, the Aarau observations for July 1816 are shown in Fig. 1, the corresponding synthetic diary in Table
 257 4. Both the observations and the synthetic diary indicate a particularly rainy month, but on a day-to-day scale there
 258 are also clear differences. In the observation, there are only three days without any precipitation (20, 21 and 23
 259 July), of which two are also dry in the synthetic diary. The latter gives eight “dry” days (of which four have zero
 260 precipitation, four have less than 1 mm).

261 A plot comparing observations and synthetic weather diary for both stations for both precipitation and sky
 262 conditions is shown in Fig. 2 (middle and bottom). While the agreement at the level of seasonal characteristics is
 263 quite favourable – both synthetic weather diaries and observations confirm the high number of rainy days in
 264 summer and also agree on less rainy periods – there are also important differences. For instance, the first half of
 265 September is rather dry in the synthetic diaries (both Aarau and St. Gall), but many rainy days are reported at both
 266 stations.



267 The agreement can be quantified with Spearman correlations by coding rain/no rain in the observations as 0 and 1
 268 (“Nebelregen”, “Nebel”, “neblig” and “Staubregen” were set to 0) and in the synthetic diary as 0 to 3 for “dry”,
 269 “slight rain/snowfall”, “rain/snowfall”, and “heavy rain/snowfall”). In this way I find correlations of around 0.25
 270 for Aarau and St. Gall. Coding snow with a negative sign in both sources, correlations increase to slightly above
 271 0.4 at both sites. Although highly significant, this agreement may not be good enough yet to be useful on a day-
 272 to-day scale.

273 There are several causes for discrepancies: Errors in the reconstruction, errors in the observations, lack of
 274 representativity of observations for a grid cell, and inadequate translation. The error in the reconstructions can be
 275 partly assessed by comparison with similar analyses in a period after 1864, when better reconstructions are
 276 available (Pfister et al., 2020). In these reconstructions, the error of precipitation was assessed by subsampling in
 277 the 1961-2010 period. Correlations of 0.75-0.90 were found for most parts of Switzerland, which however
 278 constitutes an upper-limit estimate as this analysis has no representativity error and a good quality of the underlying
 279 measurements. A more realistic case is to analyse these reconstructions in the very early years of the Swiss
 280 Meteorological network. Non-instrumental observations are available, for instance, for Winterthur. Comparing
 281 rainfall in the first three years (1864-1866) in the same way (coding snow with a negative sign), I find a correlation
 282 of 0.5. This analysis accounts for the same errors as in the case of 1816, the only difference being better
 283 reconstructions. This estimate is an upper-limit of the quality that can possibly be reached 250 years back using
 284 additionally digitised data (Brugnara et al., 2020). For the year 1865, the comparison is also shown in Fig. 2.
 285 Clearly the agreement is better in this case. Most importantly, the difference between this relatively dry year and
 286 the wet year 1816 is extremely clear.

287 The error of the translation could be assessed by changing the chosen thresholds. In the case of Aarau, the threshold
 288 for precipitation could have been set too high in the synthetic diary. I tested all combinations of threshold of 0.5
 289 or 1 mm, 5 or 8 mm, and 15 or 20 mm for the separation between the four classes for both Aarau and St. Gallen.
 290 In fact, most other combinations gave slightly better results (e.g., 0.5/8/20 mm), but differences were small. In any
 291 case, for other applications the thresholds would have to be reconsidered.

292 Finally, the agreement between observed and synthetic sky conditions is very low. Correlations, defined similarly
 293 as above, yield coefficients of 0.06 and 0.12 for St. Gall and Aarau, respectively, which is too low to be useful.
 294 Visually, large differences become apparent between the observations at Aarau and St. Gall. Specifically, the
 295 category “cloudy” (“bewölkt” in Zschokke, “trüb” or “neb. trüb” in Mayer) differs a lot between the sites at the
 296 expense of “partly cloudy”. More work and more care is required to obtain a good classification.

297 The weather type information can give additional information. For instance, every day but one (27 July) in the
 298 example of July 1816 is attributed to a cyclonic weather type. This agrees well with the rainy character of the
 299 month. Note also the frequent westerly winds noted in the observations, which is in accordance with westerly or
 300 west-southwesterly weather types, although in that case knowledge of the local wind situation and the channelling
 301 of winds is required.

302 4.2 Monthly summaries for Geneva

303 For testing the monthly summaries in the synthetic weather diaries, I compare them with the observations from
 304 Geneva. Marc-Auguste Pictet, in his observations published in the “Bibliothèque universelle” also gives a monthly
 305 summary. This sort of information is typical in historical weather sources. Here I compare the entries for the
 306 months of March to September, which are most relevant for crops, in a qualitative way (Table 5). Note that for



307 this Table, for brevity's sake, the synthetic monthly summaries have been further simplified (e.g., not all weather
 308 types are indicated, but only those that were anomalously frequent or infrequent).
 309 The comparison (highlighted in *italics*) shows a relatively good agreement. Almost in all months, Pictet points to
 310 the delay of vegetation, which is also seen in the synthetic diary based on growing degree days. The calculated
 311 delay reaches 22 days in July (relative to the historical reference period). This is less than indicated by Pictet (one
 312 month), which however refers to one comparison year. Agreement is also found with respect to most mentions of
 313 temperature and rainfall. For instance, the reported "harsh temperatures" in March correspond to a cold month in
 314 the synthetic diary, the "cold and rainy weather" in July compares well with the characterisation "very cold" and
 315 "extremely wet" in the synthetic diary. Worse agreement is found for October, which according to Pictet was of
 316 "remarkable beauty", but in the synthetic weather diary is characterised as "cold", though with below normal
 317 rainfall.

318 4.3. Comparison with Lord Byron's journey

319 A possible example of use of synthetic weather diary is to track the weather experienced during an expedition or
 320 journey. As an example, I use the famous journey of Lord Byron through the Swiss Alps in September 1816. After
 321 a dreadful summer with almost constant rain, the weather was improving and Lord Byron found the weather to be
 322 quite nice during the trip.
 323 Figure 3 shows the reconstructed fields for five days in September 1816, along with a dot that marks the location
 324 of Byron as well as the weather descriptions from his diary and from the synthetic weather diary, calculated for
 325 each location. The first day („fine weather“) indeed was a nice day also in the reconstructions, with no rainfall and
 326 high temperatures. Agreement is also found on the other days, both in terms of rainfall and temperature, except
 327 perhaps for 25 September, when Byron notes "the weather has been tolerable all day" (the meaning of which,
 328 however, is unclear). On this day, the reconstruction shows spatially extensive (though not extremely intense)
 329 rainfall. Also the two stations Aarau and St. Gall report rainfall.

330 5 Discussion

331 The analyses show that synthetic diaries can provide local, daily weather information in a format that is comparable
 332 to non-instrumental observations and weather descriptions in diaries. The comparison with independent
 333 observations shows some agreement, although the quality both of the daily reconstruction as well as of the
 334 translation needs further improvement.
 335 The comparison of monthly summaries also showed a good agreement and points to the usefulness of vegetation
 336 indices (such as GDD). The monthly summary also points to the effect of combinations of factors (e.g., cold with
 337 little snow) and the importance of pests and insects for agriculture. Experts might be able to make use of the
 338 numerical reconstructions or the synthetic weather data also for analysing insect infestations. In his summaries,
 339 Pictet appears as a rather reserved observer, who largely excludes the societal effects in his descriptions. Other
 340 weather diaries from this time (e.g., the Hoffmann diary, quoted in Bodenmann et al., 2011) have a more
 341 pessimistic or even desperate tone, list in detail the prices, and point to the miserable situation, to beggars etc.
 342 The comparison with the travel diary of Lord Byron yields a general agreement. This shows that synthetic weather
 343 diaries might be useful as an additional information source to better analyse the journey.



344 For all analyses, we should note that rainfall is much more difficult to reconstruct by the analog method than
345 temperature due to its very high spatial variability (Pfister et al., 2020). Moreover there is a large representativity
346 error and arguably also a large observation error. For instance, rain may fall unnoticed during the night. Moreover,
347 instrumental precipitation (which is the basis for the analog method) is defined as 6 local time to 6 local time,
348 making comparison at times more difficult; a one-day shift is possible. Note also that the 2x2 km² grid does not
349 represent the resolution of the observing network, which has a typical inter-station difference of 15-20 km
350 (MeteoSwiss, 2019). In any case, precipitation can only be taken as a rough indication. Temperature, conversely,
351 is well reconstructed, but less often in the focus of observers. Eventually, wind would be an important variable for
352 any reconstruction, which should be considered in future approaches.

353 While the agreement as measured in correlation is at times low, currently limiting the application of synthetic
354 diaries, it should be noted that future reconstructions will likely be much improved and resolve further detail. Once
355 this stage is reached, the potential of this tool is immense. Weather information can be generated for military
356 operations or other weather-sensitive activities. Weather diaries can also be produced for travels and expeditions.
357 The translation into text as well as the comparison with reference periods allows a more direct comparison, and
358 the calculated indices may be useful for some applications. In particular, impacts on agriculture or on other areas
359 of life can be assessed more easily. In short, the weather diaries could be used in a variety of ways by historians
360 to constrain, cross-date, compare or complement other information.

361 The approach is however also important for sciences. If the translation from numeric weather data to a synthetic
362 diary that resembles historical sources succeeds, inversion methods can be used to do the opposite: Reconstruct
363 weather numerically from descriptive data. Data assimilation techniques use such „forward models“, however, for
364 a formal data assimilation approach the variables need to be on a metric scale. For other approaches such as analog
365 selections, the variables must at least allow to express similarities (or ordinal distances). Systematically compiled
366 categorial information, however, as is produced in our approach, could be used for instance by machine learning
367 approaches. This requires that historical weather diaries can be categorized (or are already categorized) in a prior
368 step. If this is the case, machine learning approaches could then be trained on synthetic weather diaries generated
369 in the most recent few decades to provide weather types, or even entire weather fields. Once successfully trained,
370 such approaches can then applied to past weather diaries.

371 6 Summary and Conclusions

372 Recent efforts in climatology have resulted in daily weather reconstructions for the globe covering the last 200
373 years. Daily weather reconstructions are also generated for specific regions at high resolution and might soon reach
374 250 years back. These data sets could be important for history and sciences. In this paper I explore this by
375 translating a high-resolution, prototype weather reconstruction for Switzerland, 1816, into synthetic weather
376 diaries for selected locations. These synthetic weather diaries provide not only the reconstructed values, but
377 translate them into a categorial form that makes them comparable to weather descriptions. Reconstructed values
378 are referenced to a contemporary reference period, and a calibrated language (e.g., „very cold“) is used to translate
379 numbers to categories. Furthermore, monthly summaries are provided, using the monthly statistics of the daily
380 reconstruction (translated to descriptive categories) as well as indices for plant growth, freezing, and drought (also
381 translated to descriptive categories).



Results from our prototype reconstructions for Switzerland, 1816, show a good agreement with independent non-instrumental daily weather observations from Aarau and St. Gall, and with monthly weather summaries from Geneva. Also, qualitative agreement with the travel diary of Lord Byron on his journey through Switzerland in September 1816 is found. The quality of this pilot reconstruction is arguably not accurate enough for many applications. However, future products are expected to be of sufficient quality to yield useful information, although there will always be substantial uncertainty for rainfall and particularly for sky conditions. Synthetic weather diaries are also relevant for science. Combined with machine learning approaches, they could be used to reconstruct weather numerically from descriptive data. This opens an immense potential for the use of existing data bases of historical weather data such as EURO-CLIMHIST (Pfister et al., 2017), Tambora.org (Riemann et al., 2015), and TEMPEST (Veale et al., 2017) but requires intense collaboration between historians and scientists.

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- 522



im Aargau, Juli 1816.

Monatstage.	Wondseichen.	Barometer.		Thermometer.		Hygro-		Schnee oder Regen.			Winde.		Thau oder Reif.	Nebel.	Himmels- beschaffenheit.	
		Bei Ermessung gang.	Bei Ermessung gang.	Bei Ermessung gang.	Nachmittag 2 Uhr.	Bei Ermessung gang.	Nachmittag gang.	Nacht.	Vormittag.	Nachmittag.	Nachmittag.	Nachmittag.			Vormittag.	Nachmittag.
1	Erst. St.	26. 10 4	26. 9 6	10	17	13	22	—	—	Reg. 3	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	bewölkt
2	—	26. 10 5	26. 11 4	11	18	14	32	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	—	—	bewölkt	bewölkt
3	—	26. 11 5	27. 0 1	12	19	15	36	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	—	—	halbh.	—
4	—	27. 0 3	27. 0 5	13	20	16	30	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	bewölkt	bewölkt
5	—	27. 0 6	27. 0 8	14	21	17	29	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	bewölkt	bewölkt
6	—	27. 0 9	27. 0 11	15	22	18	28	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
7	—	27. 0 10	27. 0 12	16	23	19	27	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
8	—	27. 0 11	27. 0 13	17	24	20	26	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
9	Wolken.	26. 10 9	26. 10 8	12	18	14	28	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
10	—	26. 10 9	26. 10 8	12	18	14	28	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
11	—	26. 10 9	26. 10 8	12	18	14	28	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
12	—	26. 10 9	26. 10 8	12	18	14	28	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
13	—	26. 11 7	27. 0 3	8	15	12	37	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
14	—	27. 0 3	27. 0 0	10	16	11	26	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
15	—	26. 11 0	26. 10 4	9	15	12	22	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
16	—	26. 10 9	26. 10 9	9	20	9	30	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
17	Erst. St.	26. 11 2	26. 11 4	8	12	9	37	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
18	—	26. 11 4	26. 11 3	8	17	12	36	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
19	—	26. 11 7	26. 11 8	9	20	13	23	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
20	—	27. 0 3	26. 11 6	11	24	11	25	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
21	—	26. 11 0	27. 0 1	11	21	16	24	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
22	—	27. 0 6	27. 0 5	12	18	15	10	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
23	—	26. 11 8	26. 10 6	10	21	15	15	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
24	—	26. 10 6	26. 10 6	12	15	16	17	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
25	Neum.	26. 11 1	26. 11 6	10	17	12	25	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
26	—	27. 0 3	27. 0 8	10	15	14	22	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
27	—	27. 0 9	27. 0 9	10	16	15	17	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
28	—	27. 0 3	26. 10 0	8	19	14	20	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
29	—	26. 8 4	26. 7 8	13	16	14	24	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
30	—	26. 7 2	26. 9 4	7	10	9	48	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter
31	Erst. St.	26. 8 8	26. 7 9	7	10	9	29	Regen	Regen	Regen	W.	W.	Thau	Worm.	halbh.	heiter

523

524 Figure 1. Weather observations by Zschokke, Aarau, for July 1816 (Zschokke, 1817).

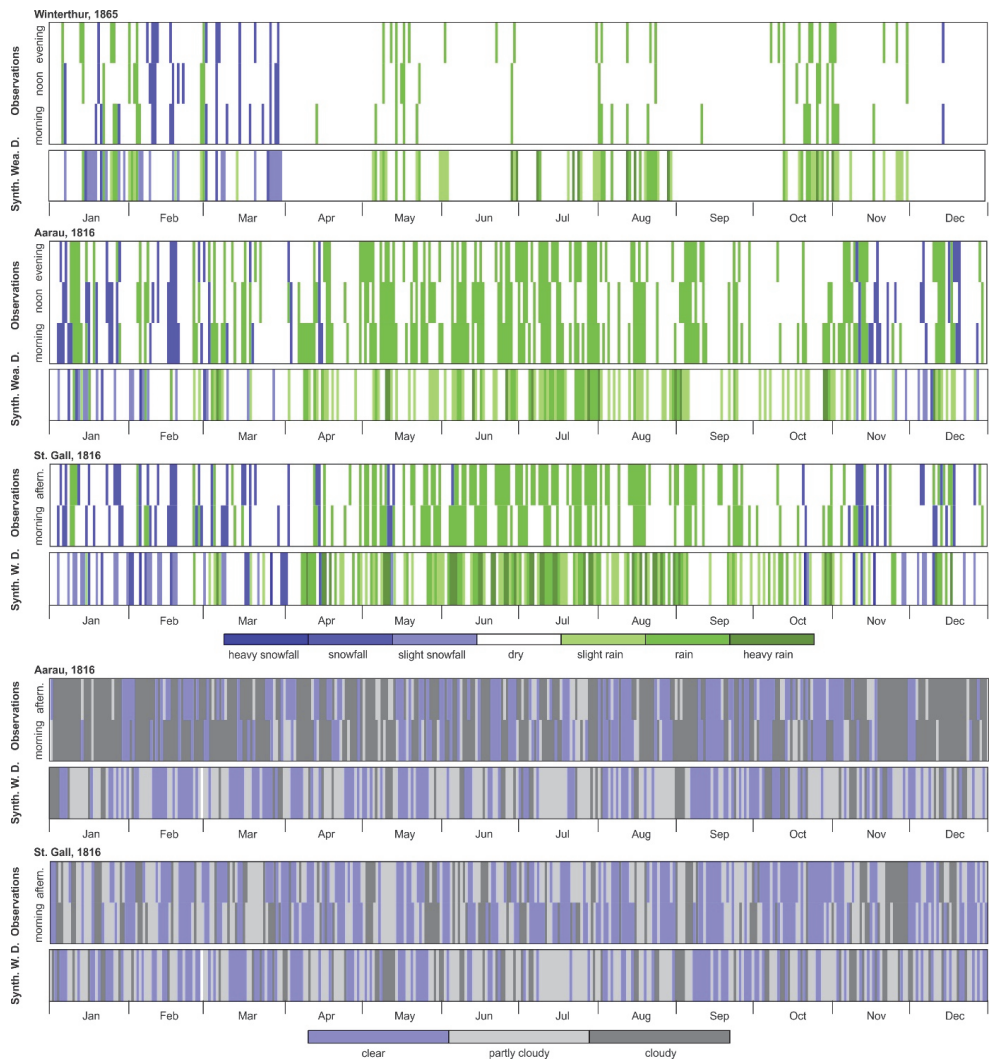
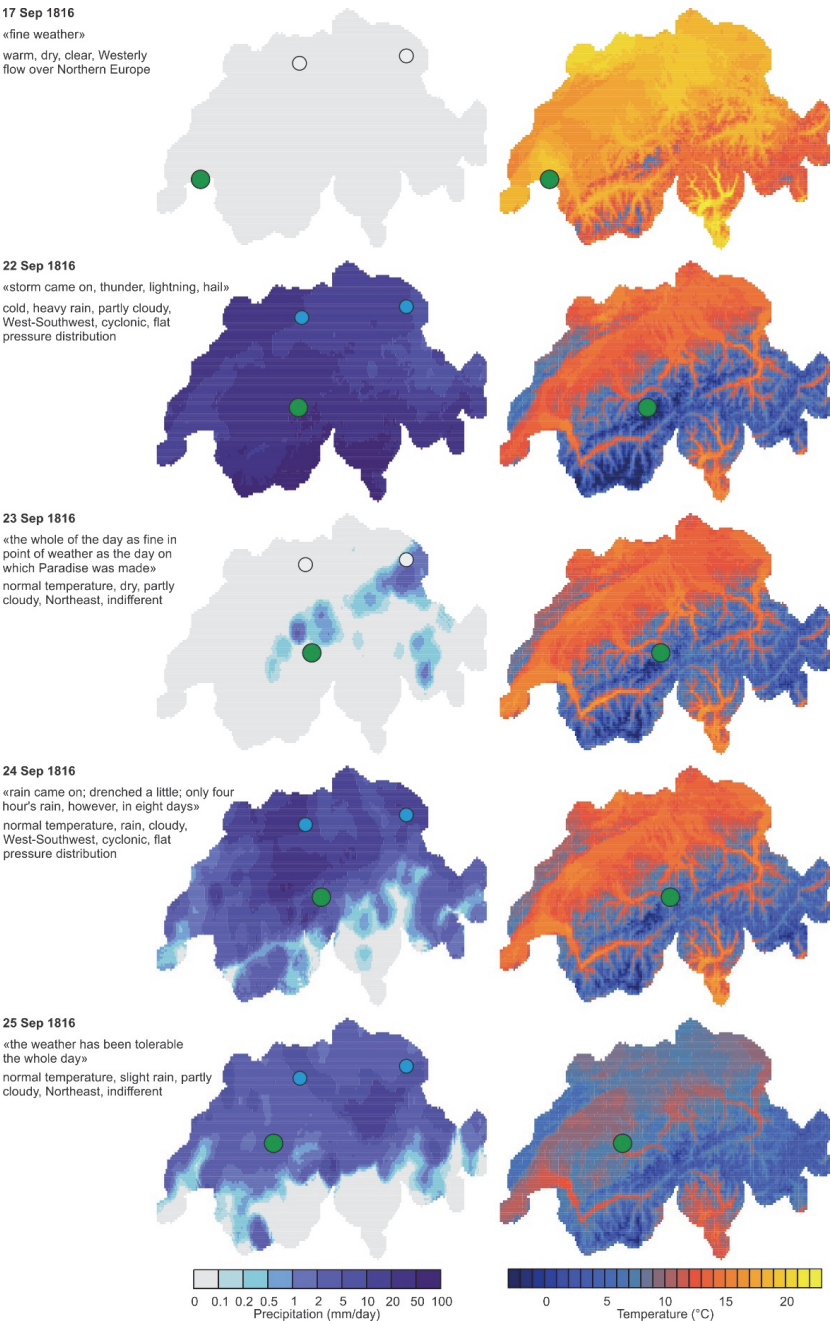


Figure 2. Comparison of observations (2-3 times daily) and synthetic weather diaries (daily) for Winterthur (1865) as well as Aarau and St. Gall (1816).



529

530 Figure 3. The weather during Lord Byron's travel from Lake Geneva to the Bernese Oberland in September 1816.
531 The figure shows his diary entries (in quotation marks) as well as the synthetic weather diary for five days. Also
532 shown are precipitation and daily mean temperature from the reconstructions. The green dot marks the position of
533 Lord Byron. The small dots indicate whether the observers at Aarau and St. Gall noted precipitation (blue) or not
534 (grey).

535



536 Table 1. Description of CAP7 weather types, corresponding CAP9 types, and frequencies in the cold and warm
 537 season in the period 1961-1990

CAP7	Description	CAP9	f _{Apr-Sep}	f _{Oct-Mar}
1	Northeast, indifferent	1	0.28	0.08
2	West-southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure	2	0.18	0.11
3	Westerly flow over Northern Europe	3	0.12	0.13
4	East, indifferent	4	0.15	0.12
5	High pressure over Europe	5+8	0.03	0.30
6	North, cyclonic	6	0.15	0.09
7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic	7+9	0.09	0.16

538

539 Table 2. Taxonomy used in the observations from Zschokke and Mayer as well as in the synthetic weather diary,
 540 together with the definition (Def.; T = daily mean temperature in °C, T' = standardized daily mean temperature
 541 anomaly, R = precipitation in mm per day, I = Irradiance relative to possible irradiance).

Temperature		Precipitation				Sky conditions			
Synthetic	Def.	Zschokke	Mayer	Synthetic	Def.	Zschokke	Mayer	Synthetic	Def.
extremely cold	$T_{mean}' \leq -2.5$	(empty), Staub-regen	(empty)	dry	$R < 1$	heiter	schön, heiter, neb. schön	clear	$I < 0.33$
very cold	$-2.5 < T_{mean}' \leq -1.5$	Regen	Regen	slight rain	$1 < R < 5$ $T > 2$	halbheiter	vermischt, neb. vermischt	partly cloudy	$RR > 0$ or $0.33 < I < 0.66$
cold	$-1.5 < T_{mean}' \leq -0.5$			rain	$5 < R < 15$ $T > 2$	bewölkt	trüb, neb. trüb	cloudy	$0.66 < I$
average	$-0.5 < T_{mean}' \leq -0.5$			heavy rain	$15 < R$ $T > 2$				
warm	$0.5 < T_{mean}' \leq 1.5$	Schnee, Schnee-regen	Schnee	slight snowfall	$1 < R < 5$ $T \leq 2$				
very warm	$1.5 < T_{mean}' \leq 2.5$			snowfall	$5 < R < 15$ $T \leq 2$				
extremely warm	$-2.5 < T_{mean}'$			heavy snowfall	$15 < R$ $T \leq 2$				

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Table 3. Seven-point scale for indexing standardized anomalies (std. dev.), description (x denotes a property and $-x$ its reverse, e.g., “warm” and “cold”, “wet” and “dry”, or “late” and “early”) and corresponding probabilities (Prob.) and cumulative probabilities (Cum. prob.) for (left part of table) this study and (right) (Pfister et al. 2018). Italics: Thresholds and descriptions that are part of the definition; other columns are implied by assuming a normal distribution.

This study				Pfister et al. 2018			
Std. Dev.	Description	Prob. (%)	Cum. prob. (%)	Std. Dev.	Description	Prob. (%)	Cum. prob. (%)
< -2.5	<i>extremely [-x]</i>	0.6	0.6	< -1.38	<i>extremely [-x]</i>	8.3	8.3
-2.5 to -1.5	<i>very [-x]</i>	6.1	6.7	-1.38 to -0.67	<i>[-x]</i>	16.7	25
-1.5 to -0.5	<i>[-x]</i>	24.2	30.9	-0.67 to -0.2	<i>rather [-x]</i>	17	42
-0.5 to 0.5	<i>normal/average</i>	38.3	69.1	-0.2 to 0.2	<i>normal/average</i>	16	58
0.5 to 1.5	<i>[x]</i>	24.2	93.3	0.2 to 0.67	<i>rather [x]</i>	17	75
1.5 to 2.5	<i>very [x]</i>	6.1	99.4	0.67 to 1.38	<i>[x]</i>	16.7	91.7
> 2.5	<i>extremely [x]</i>	0.6	100	> 1.38	<i>extremely [x]</i>	8.3	100



549 Table 4. Synthetic weather diary for Aarau, July 1816 (columns: Year, month, day, T_{mean} , anomaly of T_{mean} , standardized anomaly of T_{mean} ,
 550 precipitation, temperature description, precipitation description, cloud cover description, weather type, description of weather type.

YR	M	D	$T[^\circ\text{C}]$	$dT[^\circ\text{C}]$	$T[\text{sd}]$	$R[\text{mm/d}]$	$T[\text{text}]$	$R[\text{text}]$	$\text{Sky}[\text{text}]$	WT	$\text{WT}[\text{text}]$
1816	7	1	16.40	-2.25	-0.69	9.69	cold	rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	2	11.75	-7.23	-2.23	0.72	very cold	dry	clear	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	3	12.65	-6.13	-1.89	0.18	very cold	dry	cloudy	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	4	14.34	-4.24	-1.31	0	cold	dry	clear	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	5	13.31	-4.52	-1.40	0.72	cold	dry	clear	2	West-Southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure distribution
1816	7	6	13.89	-4.25	-1.32	10.72	cold	rain	cloudy	2	West-Southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure distribution
1816	7	7	16.92	-0.50	-0.15	5.43	normal	rain	cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	8	18.45	0.41	0.13	19.37	normal	heavy rain	partly cloudy	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	9	19.55	1.39	0.43	0	normal	dry	clear	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	10	19.85	1.43	0.45	2.57	normal	slight rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	11	17.10	-1.70	-0.53	3.8	cold	slight rain	partly cloudy	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	12	15.82	-1.91	-0.60	3.8	cold	slight rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	13	15.10	-2.99	-0.94	9.46	cold	rain	partly cloudy	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	14	11.80	-5.41	-1.71	2.71	very cold	slight rain	partly cloudy	2	West-Southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure distribution
1816	7	15	15.38	-2.52	-0.80	10.07	cold	rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	16	12.14	-4.94	-1.57	9.69	very cold	rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	17	10.09	-6.62	-2.11	3.8	very cold	slight rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	18	15.18	-1.44	-0.46	5.89	normal	rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	19	16.92	-0.60	-0.19	7.32	normal	rain	partly cloudy	2	West-Southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure distribution
1816	7	20	16.25	-1.18	-0.38	11.59	normal	rain	partly cloudy	2	West-Southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure distribution
1816	7	21	20.49	2.69	0.87	0.91	warm	dry	clear	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	22	17.28	-0.35	-0.11	0	normal	dry	clear	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	23	15.57	-2.07	-0.67	0	cold	dry	clear	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	24	16.35	-0.98	-0.32	7.06	normal	rain	cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	25	13.19	-4.66	-1.53	9.19	very cold	rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	26	12.82	-4.81	-1.58	9.46	very cold	rain	partly cloudy	6	North, cyclonic
1816	7	27	14.31	-4.77	-1.57	10.19	very cold	rain	partly cloudy	1	Northeast, indifferent
1816	7	28	17.91	-0.97	-0.32	7.32	normal	rain	partly cloudy	2	West-Southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure distribution
1816	7	29	18.68	-0.17	-0.06	2.01	normal	slight rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	30	12.41	-6.67	-2.23	38.48	very cold	heavy rain	cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic
1816	7	31	15.40	-4.75	-1.59	12.13	very cold	rain	partly cloudy	7	Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic

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553 Table 5. Comparison of monthly summaries of weather and state of vegetation by Pictet in Geneva, 1816 (translated), and in our synthetic
 554 weather diary (excerpt giving monthly mean temperature, number of frost days (if any), max₁₀FDD, GDD, delay, monthly mean rainfall,
 555 percentage of normal rainfall, number of rain and snowfall days, P-E with qualifier, overview of frequent (>150%) and infrequent (<50%
 556 relative to expected frequency from reference period) weather types, with number and percentage compared to reference period). Highlighted
 557 in italics are text excerpts (left) that can qualitatively be compared with the synthetic diary (right).

Mon	Pictet	Synthetic
Mar	The <i>harsh temperature</i> , and the <i>lack of snow</i> on the wheats, makes one fear that they will not recover from the winter's hardship. Clovers and alfalfa are uprooted in the cold and wet soils. Field work has been little interrupted.	T = 3.67 °C (<i>cold</i>), 3 frost days, max ₁₀ FDD = 1 °C, GDD = 35 °C (late, 5 d), R = 1.17 mm/d (56%), 7 raindays, 3 snowfall days, P-E = 21 mm (normal moisture), frequent „Northeast, indifferent“ (8 days, 252%), „Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic“ (9 days, 169%), infrequent „High pressure over Europe“ (1 day, 16%)
Apr	The season is uniquely <i>delayed</i> . The vine has not yet grown at all. The vegetation is very weak. The rains seem to have replenished the meadows that the frosts have lightened; but the wheat is very meager; some have been lost. Spring sowing has been done with ease.	T = 7.86 °C (<i>cold</i>), max ₁₀ FDD = 1 °C, GDD = 158 °C (<i>very late</i> , 21 d), R = 1.77 mm/d (72%), 9 raindays, P-E = 13 mm (normal moisture), frequent „Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic“ (12 days, 202%), infrequent „Westerly flow over Northern Europe“ (2 days, 41%) and „West-southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure“ (1 day, 36%), no „East, indifferent“ and „High pressure over Europe“
May	The scourge of cockchafer has been felt with great violence this year. The stone fruit trees are almost completely leafless: plum and cherry trees in particular. Pear trees suffer just as much from caterpillars. The season is <i>about one month later than last year</i> . Wheat that has not been destroyed or damaged by the winter has gained a lot. A rather large number of grapes have appeared, but the <i>unfavourable temperature</i> cost part of the whites: the red grapes resist better. The meadows look good.	T = 12.29 °C (<i>cold</i>), GDD = 415 °C (<i>very late</i> , 15 d), R = 2.61 mm/d (104%), 12 raindays, P-E = 6 mm (normal moisture), frequent „North, cyclonic“ (16 days, 337%), „Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic“ (7 days, 223%), no „West-southwest, cyclonic, flat pressure“, „Westerly flow over Northern Europe“, „East, indifferent“, and „High pressure over Europe“
Jun	Trees are still very susceptible to attacks by cockchafer and caterpillars. The oaks have not yet had a single leaf as of June 30. There are pear trees that also lack them, and whose fruit has fallen off. The wheat has flourished, the barley and oats are beautiful. <i>The grapes are not yet flowering</i> . The natural and artificial meadows give a lot of fodder.	T = 12.73 °C (<i>very cold</i>), GDD = 676 °C (<i>very late</i> , 17 d), R = 5.51 mm/d (192%), 15 raindays, P-E = 86 mm (<i>very wet</i>), frequent „North, cyclonic“ (16 days, 301%), „Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic“ (6 days, 285%), infrequent „Northeast, indifferent“ (4 days, 47%), no „Westerly flow over Northern Europe“, „East, indifferent“, and „High pressure over Europe“
Jul	The <i>cold, rainy weather</i> delayed the harvest so much that only little rye and little winter barley was harvested. Grapes are <i>very late</i> and the branches have a lot of aborted berries, and are also in small quantities. The late-ripening meadows, which are only cut once, yield very little, and the annual clovers look good. Potatoes are in danger of <i>rotting in places where there is no drainage</i> .	T = 15.1 °C (<i>very cold</i>), GDD = 1020 °C (<i>extremely late</i> , 22 d), R = 6.23 mm/d (254%), 19 raindays, P-E = 96 mm (<i>extremely wet</i>), frequent „Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic“ (16 days, 1385%), „North, cyclonic“ (8 days, 162%), infrequent „Northeast, indifferent“ (1 day, 9%), no „Westerly flow over Northern Europe“, „East, indifferent“, and „High pressure over Europe“
Aug	The harvests, at first thwarted by the <i>rains</i> , were then carried out in very favourable weather. The clovers of the second cut are beautiful, as well as the second-growth hay, and the annual clovers. Potatoes are abundant where they have not <i>rotted in the ground, which has happened everywhere where water has stayed</i> . Wheats have little grain and are afflicted with rust. Barley yields a lot. Grapes have grown, but it is doubtful that they can ripen.	T = 16.46 °C (<i>very cold</i>), R = 3.19 mm/d (119%), 12 raindays, P-E = 1 mm (<i>wet</i>), frequent „Westerly flow over Southern Europe, cyclonic“ (4 days, 329%), infrequent „Westerly flow over Northern Europe“ (1 day, 26%), no „High pressure over Europe“
Sep	The weather was beautiful and the <i>temperature was quite mild</i> throughout the month to advance the ripening of the oats and barley from the mountains: we now have hopes that they will ripen, but the grapes are still almost unchanged, and benefit little. The second-growth hay has been reliable. Sowing is difficult in the clay fields. The first wheat sown	T = 15.04 °C (<i>average</i>), R = 2.35 mm/d (78%), 7 raindays, P-E = -5 mm (normal moisture), frequent „Northeast, indifferent“ (9 days, 152%), no „High pressure over Europe“ and „North, cyclonic“



	has risen well. The potatoes planted by the plough are largely rotten, those planted by the spade are less affected.	
Oct	The month of October was of a <i>remarkable beauty</i> ; the buckwheat sown after the wheat has prospered a lot; the harvest of the mountains is coming, the white grapes got lighter, when the frosts of the 22nd and 23rd spoiled everything, except for the grapes of some vineyards located near the lake. All the red grapes were frozen, because they were just beginning to change. A reliable white harvest was made, and some owners put sugar in it to make sure that the juice would ferment. The wood of the vine is not ripe.	T = 9.23 °C (<i>cold</i>), R = 2.59 mm/d (83%), 8 raindays, P-E = 41 mm (normal moisture), frequent „Northeast, indifferent“ (6 days, 230%), „North, cyclonic“ (5 days, 269%)

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